

# Efficacy of Lantibiotic Treatment of *Staphylococcus aureus*-Induced Skin Infections, Monitored by *In Vivo* Bioluminescent Imaging

Anton Du Preez van Staden,<sup>a</sup> Tiaan Heunis,<sup>b</sup> Carine Smith,<sup>c</sup> Shelly Deane,<sup>a</sup> Leon M. T. Dicks<sup>a</sup>

Department of Microbiology, Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch, South Africa<sup>a</sup>; SAMRC Centre for Tuberculosis Research, DST/NRF Centre of Excellence for Biomedical Tuberculosis Research, Division of Molecular Biology and Human Genetics, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Stellenbosch University, Cape Town, South Africa<sup>b</sup>; Department of Physiological Sciences, Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch, South Africa<sup>c</sup>

*Staphylococcus aureus* is a bacterial pathogen responsible for the majority of skin and soft tissue infections. Antibiotics are losing their efficacy as treatment for skin and soft tissue infections as a result of increased resistance in a variety of pathogens, including *S. aureus*. It is thus imperative to explore alternative antimicrobial treatments to ensure future treatment options for skin and soft tissue infections. A select few lantibiotics, a group of natural defense peptides produced by bacteria, inhibit the growth of numerous clinical *S. aureus* isolates, including methicillin-resistant strains. In this study, the antimicrobial activities of nisin, clausin, and amyloliquecidin, separately administered, were compared to that of a mupirocin-based ointment, which is commonly used as treatment for *S. aureus*-induced skin infections. Full-thickness excisional wounds, generated on the dorsal surfaces of mice, were infected with a bioluminescent strain of *S. aureus* (strain Xen 36). The infections were monitored in real time using *in vivo* bioluminescent imaging. Lantibiotic treatments significantly reduced the bioluminescence of *S. aureus* Xen 36 to a level similar to that recorded with mupirocin treatment. Wound closure, however, was more pronounced during lantibiotic treatment. Lantibiotics thus have the potential to be used as an alternative treatment option for *S. aureus*-induced skin infections.

Skin and soft tissue infections (SSTIs) are common bacterial infections, and increased antimicrobial resistance limits the options available for treatment of SSTIs (1, 2). Mupirocin (Bactroban)-based ointments, one of the recommended treatments for *Staphylococcus aureus*-induced SSTIs, are losing their effectiveness, especially against antibiotic-resistant strains, such as methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA) (3, 4). Increased resistance to vancomycin and linezolid, considered “drugs of last resort” for severe MRSA and vancomycin-resistant *S. aureus* infections, respectively, has also been reported (5–8). This further limits treatment options for *S. aureus*-induced SSTIs, especially those caused by antibiotic-resistant strains, and alternatives are desperately needed to ensure future treatment efficacy. As a viable alternative, researchers have focused on antibiotics that either target cell wall synthesis or destabilize the cell membrane (9). Certain conserved cellular components involved in cell wall biosynthesis cannot be altered or replaced by simple mutations without having a detrimental effect on the bacteria, and this makes them valuable targets (9). Lipid II is an essential precursor in the formation of bacterial cell walls and is an example of a viable alternative target for next-generation antibiotics. Lantibiotics are small cationic antimicrobial peptides (cAMPs) produced by several Gram-positive bacteria that disrupt cell wall biosynthesis by binding to lipid II (10). Furthermore, certain lantibiotics, in addition to inhibiting cell wall biosynthesis, can form pores in the bacterial cell membrane, resulting in leakage of intracellular material (10). Several lantibiotics are active against antibiotic-resistant pathogens, and their efficacy in treating bacterial infections has been reported in several animal models (11–14).

Wound healing is as important as treating infection and is a complex process that involves a number of highly programmed phases (15, 16). These phases are regulated by the immune system, which in turn can be negatively influenced by a variety of factors, including stress, diabetes, obesity, and nutrition (15, 17). Antimi-

crobial peptides, such as cathelicidin LL-37 and defensins, play an important role in immunity by acting as antimicrobials and/or immunomodulatory molecules to resolve infection and speed up the recovery process (18). Lantibiotics are also able to modulate the innate immune system, with nisin showing promising immunomodulatory activity (19, 20). The immune response triggered by nisin is able to protect the host against infection caused by Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. This response is unexpected, as nisin displays antimicrobial activity toward Gram-negative bacteria only when combined with a chelating agent or when the outer membrane has been damaged (20, 21). In an unrelated study, Heunis and coworkers (14) observed accelerated wound healing when *S. aureus*-induced skin infections were treated with nisin incorporated into nanofibers. These studies imply that nisin, and possibly other lantibiotics, may have immunomodulatory activity that can be exploited to boost the immune system to combat infection and enhance wound healing.

Here, we report on the efficacy of the lantibiotics nisin, clausin, and amyloliquecidin (AmyA), a novel two-component lantibiotic produced by *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, in treating *S. aureus*-in-

Received 8 December 2015 Returned for modification 18 January 2016

Accepted 8 April 2016

Accepted manuscript posted online 11 April 2016

Citation van Staden ADP, Heunis T, Smith C, Deane S, Dicks LMT. 2016. Efficacy of lantibiotic treatment of *Staphylococcus aureus*-induced skin infections, monitored by *in vivo* bioluminescent imaging. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 60:3948–3955. doi:10.1128/AAC.02938-15.

Address correspondence to Leon M. T. Dicks, lmt@sun.ac.za, or Anton Du Preez van Staden, advstaden@outlook.com.

Supplemental material for this article may be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.02938-15>.

Copyright © 2016, American Society for Microbiology. All Rights Reserved.

duced skin infections. Importantly, the effect on wound healing and closure was investigated to evaluate the efficacy of these lantibiotics as novel wound repair and regeneration agents.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Growth media were from Biolab Diagnostics (Gauteng, South Africa) unless otherwise stated. Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) (87 to 89% hydrolyzed;  $M_w$ , 146,000 to 186,000) and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) were from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The Pierce bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay was from Thermo Scientific (Rockford, IL). Gauze and micropore surgical tape were from AlphaPharm (Stellenbosch, South Africa). Biopsy punches were supplied by Stellenbosch Medical Supplies (Stellenbosch, South Africa). Isoflurane was from Safe Saline Pharmaceuticals (Isofor; Gauteng, South Africa), and buprenorphine was from Schering-Plough Ltd. (Tamgesic; Cape Town, South Africa).

**Preparation of lantibiotics.** Lantibiotics were purified and antimicrobial activity was tested as discussed in the supplemental material. Freeze-dried high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-purified samples were reconstituted in 0.1% (vol/vol) TFA for antimicrobial assays and phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (pH 7.4) for animal trials. Peptide concentrations were determined using the BCA protein assay according to the manufacturer's instructions. Lantibiotics were prepared to a final concentration of 50  $\mu$ M in 0.1% (vol/vol) TFA for antimicrobial assays and 250  $\mu$ M in PBS (pH 7.4) containing 2.5% (wt/vol) PVA for animal trials. The lantibiotic suspensions were stored at 4°C throughout each animal trial. In the case of AmyA, the  $\alpha$ - and  $\beta$ -peptides were combined in a 1:1 molar ratio. The suspensions were freshly prepared before each trial.

**Animals used.** Ethical clearance to conduct research on animals was granted by the ethics committee of Stellenbosch University (SU-ACUM14-00009). Adult female nude mice (weighing 20 to 30 g) were used for infection studies and housed in separate cages under controlled environmental conditions (12-h light/dark cycles; 20 to 22°C). The animals were fed sterile standard rodent feed and water. Closure of noninfected wounds was investigated in male nude mice (weighing 20 to 30 g) housed under similar conditions. Wound infection studies were conducted in three independent trials, and studies of the closure of noninfected wounds were conducted in two independent trials.

**Full-thickness wound generation and infection with *S. aureus* Xen 36.** A full-thickness excisional wound was made on the dorsal surface of each mouse by using a 6-mm biopsy punch. The mice received buprenorphine (~0.03 mg/kg of body weight) subcutaneously as an analgesic before wound generation and for the first 3 days post-wound generation. A single *S. aureus* Xen 36 colony was used to inoculate brain heart infusion (BHI) broth supplemented with kanamycin (200  $\mu$ g/ml) and was incubated overnight at 37°C. The overnight culture was subinoculated into fresh medium and grown to an optical density at 600 nm ( $OD_{600}$ ) of 1.0 to 1.2 ( $\sim 2 \times 10^8$  CFU/ml). Cell counts were verified by serial dilution and plating onto BHI agar supplemented with kanamycin (200  $\mu$ g/ml). Bacteria were harvested (10,000  $\times$  g; 2 min), washed twice with sterile PBS (pH 7.4), and resuspended in sterile PBS (pH 7.4) to the original  $OD_{600}$ . The wounds were each inoculated with *S. aureus* Xen 36 ( $2 \times 10^6$  CFU/wound), left to dry for 5 min, and then covered with Parafilm and gauze. The dressings were kept in place with micropore surgical tape.

**Treatment and evaluation of *S. aureus* Xen 36 wound infections.** Mice ( $n = 9$  in each treatment group) were left for 3 h postinfection before treatment commenced. Wounds were treated with 12.5  $\mu$ l (250  $\mu$ M) of AmyA, clausin, or nisin applied directly onto the wound and dispersed evenly over the surface. The same volume (12.5  $\mu$ l) of mupirocin ointment (GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC) was also dispensed onto wounds using a micrometer syringe attached to a Leur fitting. The wounds of control mice were treated with 2.5% PVA in PBS (pH 7.4).

The first set of bioluminescent images, recorded using an *in vivo* imaging system (IVIS 100; Caliper Life Sciences, Perkin-Elmer, Hopkinton, MA), was 5 min after treatment. Follow-up treatments with the same dose of lantibiotics, mupirocin, and control suspension were 2, 4, and 6 days

after infection. Bioluminescent images were recorded daily for 7 days and analyzed using Living Image software (v3.0) from Caliper Life Sciences. Bioluminescence was measured in a region of interest (ROI) (25 by 25 pixels) and expressed as  $\log_{10}$  photons per second per square centimeter per steradian ( $\text{ps}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2} \text{sr}^{-1}$ ). All images were taken with the dressings removed. On day 7, the mice were euthanized with an overdose of pentobarbitone sodium (Euthapent; Kyron Laboratories Ltd., Benrose, South Africa). The wounds were excised and homogenized in sterile PBS (pH 7.4), and the homogenate was serially diluted in sterile saline and plated onto BHI agar supplemented with kanamycin (200  $\mu$ g/ml). The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 h, and colonies were enumerated to determine the numbers of viable *S. aureus* Xen 36 bacteria present in the wounds.

Digital images were taken of wounds ( $n = 6$  per treatment group) to determine the effect of treatment on wound closure. Digital photographs were analyzed using the software program ImageJ (NIH Research Services Branch [<http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>]). Wound size on day  $n$  was expressed as a percentage relative to the wound size on day 0 ( $D_n/D_0 \times 100$ , where  $D_n$  is the wound size on day  $n$  and  $D_0$  is the wound size on day 0).

**Effect of lantibiotics on the closure of noninfected wounds.** Full-thickness excisional wound generation and treatment of mice ( $n = 5$  per treatment group) were as previously described. Digital images of wounds were taken, and wound closure was determined as previously described. The mice were monitored for 7 days, after which they were euthanized and the wounds were excised for histological analysis. The excised wounds were fixed in 4% formaldehyde in 0.1 M PBS (pH 6.5). Samples were processed using automated procedures to impregnate and subsequently embed the samples in paraffin wax. Five-micrometer sections were made using a rotary microtome, and the samples were stained with hematoxylin and eosin.

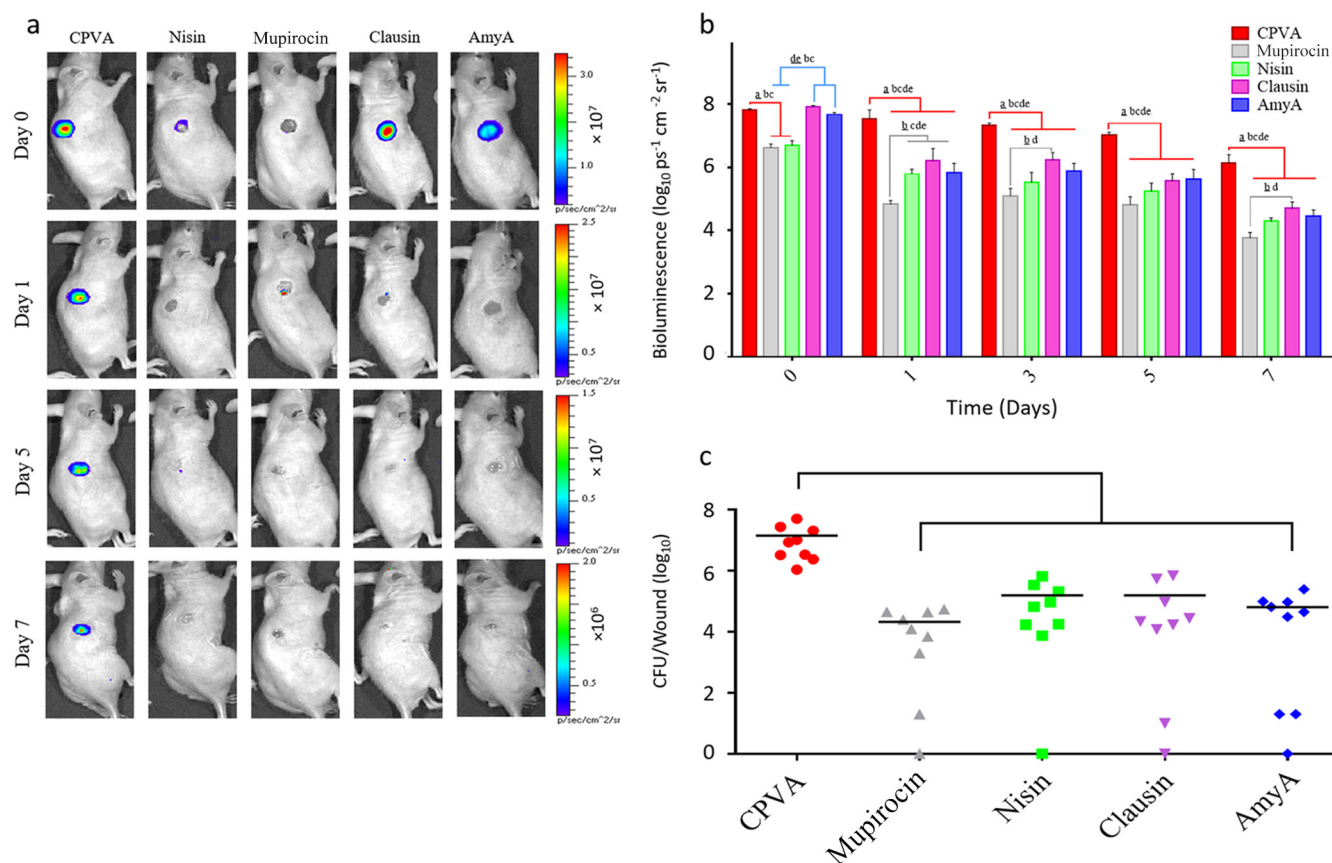
**Statistical analysis.** All the data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism (version 6.05), and statistical differences between groups were determined using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and an unpaired *t* test. The statistical analyses used are indicated for each data set. A difference was considered statistically significant when the *P* value was  $<0.05$ . Errors were calculated as standard errors of the mean (SEM).

## RESULTS

**Lantibiotic activity against *S. aureus* in vitro.** Clinical isolates of *S. aureus*, beta-hemolytic streptococci, *Enterococcus* spp., and *Listeria* spp. were used as targets to determine the antimicrobial spectrum of AmyA, clausin, and nisin (see Tables S1 and S2 in the supplemental material). All three lantibiotics were active against *S. aureus* (including MRSA strains), beta-hemolytic streptococci, and *Listeria* spp. Fewer species were inhibited by AmyA, and concentrations higher than those of clausin and nisin (based on MIC values) were required to have the same antibacterial effect against *S. aureus* Xen strains (see Table S2 in the supplemental material). Preliminary MIC values for mupirocin (from mupirocin ointment) against *S. aureus* Xen 36 (the strain used for *in vivo* studies) were less than 5  $\mu$ M, and the concentration used on mice was 46.1 mM mupirocin (in 12.5  $\mu$ l mupirocin ointment).

**Efficacy of lantibiotics in the treatment of *S. aureus*-induced wound infections.** Full-thickness excisional wounds on the dorsal surfaces of mice, generated with a biopsy punch (6-mm diameter), were infected with  $2 \times 10^6$  CFU of the bioluminescent *S. aureus* strain Xen 36. The progression of infection was evaluated daily for 7 days by measuring bacterial bioluminescence (IVIS; Perkin-Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA). Antimicrobial and control treatments were applied to the wounds 3 h after infection, followed by additional applications on days 2, 4, and 6 (Fig. 1).

All antimicrobial treatments reduced the bacterial load, as indicated by a reduced bioluminescent signal emitted from *S. aureus*



**FIG 1** *In vivo* efficacy of antimicrobials in the treatment of *S. aureus*-induced skin infection in mice ( $n = 9$  per treatment group). (a) Representative images of *in vivo* *S. aureus* bioluminescence following antimicrobial treatment. (b) Dynamics of *in vivo* *S. aureus* bioluminescence after antimicrobial treatment. The letters and brackets above the bars (means and SEM) indicate groups with statistical differences as determined by two-way ANOVA. (c) Viable *S. aureus* Xen 36 cells enumerated from excised wounds on day 7. The horizontal lines and brackets represent means and statistical differences, respectively. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired *t* tests.

Xen 36 (Fig. 1a and b). Wounds treated with the control polyvinyl alcohol (CPVA) solution had stable bioluminescence throughout the 7-day trial period. Treatment with mupirocin (the antibacterial standard for comparison) and nisin resulted in an almost immediate reduction in bioluminescence, i.e., within 5 min of treatment. Significant reductions in bioluminescence readings were recorded 1 day after treatment with AmyA and clausin. Treatment with mupirocin resulted in the lowest bioluminescence readings throughout the trial period (Fig. 1b).

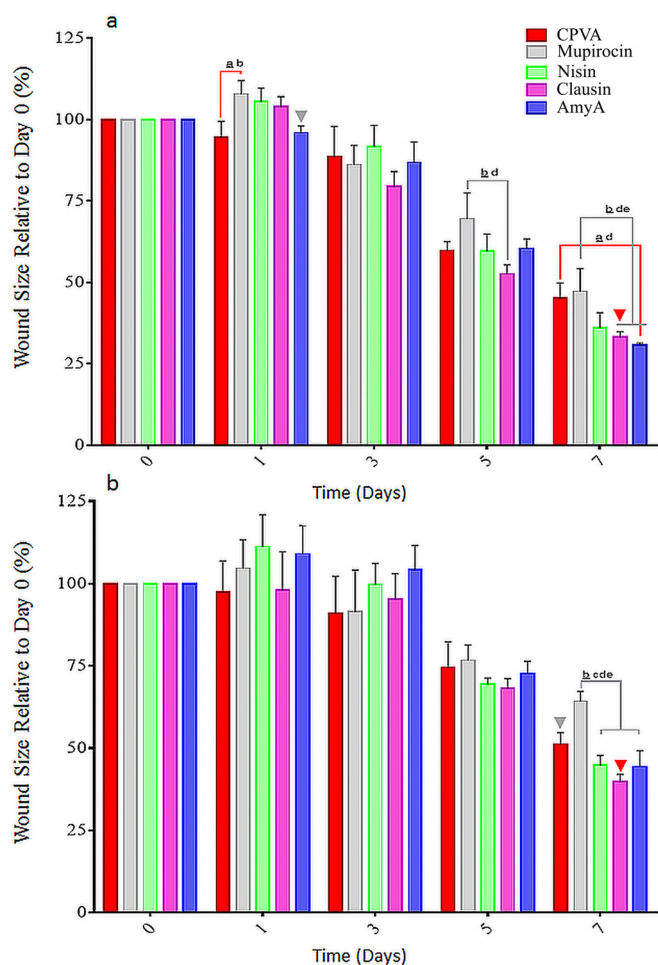
Wounds were excised on day 7, and the number of viable cells of *S. aureus* Xen 36 present in the tissue was determined (Fig. 1c). Viable-cell numbers of *S. aureus* Xen 36 were significantly and similarly reduced when wounds were treated with lantibiotics or mupirocin compared to CPVA treatment. Despite recorded differences in bioluminescence, there were no significant differences in the numbers of *S. aureus* Xen 36 cells isolated from wound tissue treated with any of the antimicrobials. Tissue samples with the highest viable-cell numbers included wounds treated with CPVA ( $5.1 \times 10^7$  cells; mean,  $1.4 \times 10^7$  cells per wound), followed by nisin ( $6.6 \times 10^5$  cells; mean,  $1.6 \times 10^5$  cells per wound) and clausin ( $7.0 \times 10^5$  cells; mean,  $1.6 \times 10^5$  cells per wound).

**Effects of antimicrobial treatments on wound closure.** Wound healing can be hampered by infection, and it would thus be ideal if an antimicrobial agent could also facilitate wound heal-

ing. Wound sizes were therefore measured and compared to those of CPVA-treated wounds to determine the effects of the lantibiotics on closure in infected wounds (Fig. 2a). All the treatments resulted in a gradual decrease in wound size, with CPVA, mupirocin, nisin, clausin, and AmyA treatments resulting in  $54.8\% \pm 4.6\%$ ,  $52.7\% \pm 6.9\%$ ,  $63.9\% \pm 4.7\%$ ,  $66.7\% \pm 1.6\%$ , and  $69.3\% \pm 0.7\%$  closure, respectively, after 7 days. All the treatments, including CPVA treatment, resulted in smaller wounds on day 7 than treatment with mupirocin. Clausin- and AmyA-treated wounds were smaller than CPVA-treated wounds. Although not significant, nisin-treated wounds were also smaller than CPVA-treated wounds.

The effect of antimicrobial treatment on wound closure in the absence of infection was also studied (Fig. 2b). Noninfected wounds treated with CPVA, mupirocin, nisin, clausin, and AmyA resulted in wound closure slightly less than that observed for infected wounds ( $48.7\% \pm 3.53\%$ ,  $35.7\% \pm 3.04\%$ ,  $55.2\% \pm 3.01\%$ ,  $60.1\% \pm 2.20\%$ , and  $55.5\% \pm 4.78\%$ , respectively). However, the difference was not significant, with the exception of AmyA and clausin on days 5 and 7 (see Fig. S3 in the supplemental material). Mupirocin treatment of uninfected wounds resulted in delayed wound closure; this is in agreement with the closure of infected wounds treated with mupirocin. Clausin treatment had the most drastic effect on wound closure, reducing wound size by  $\sim 11.4\%$

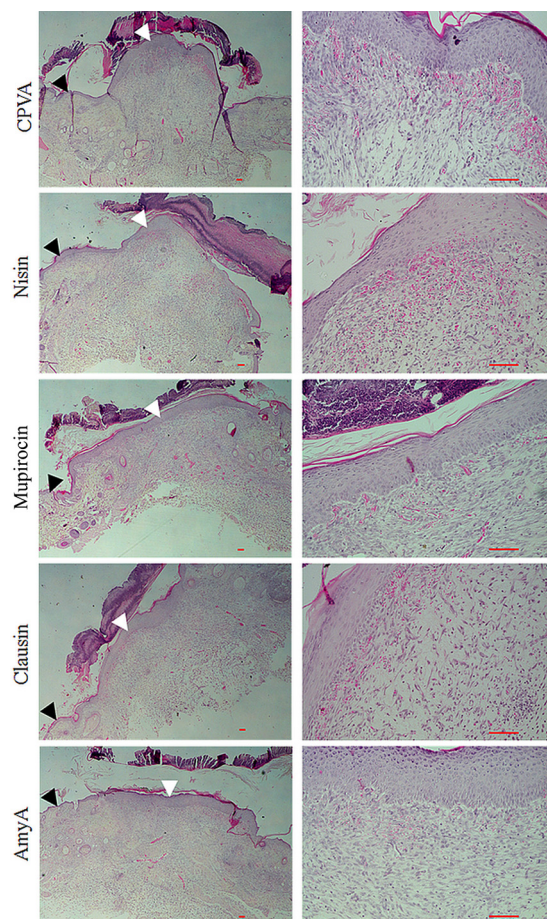




**FIG 2** Effects of antimicrobial treatment on closure of infected and noninfected wounds. The letters and brackets above the bars (means and SEM) indicate groups with statistical differences as determined by two-way ANOVA. (a) Closure of wounds infected with *S. aureus* Xen 36 ( $n = 6$  per treatment group). The gray arrowhead indicates a statistical difference between mupirocin- and AmyA-treated wounds, and the red arrowhead indicates a statistical difference between CPVA- and clausin-treated wounds, as determined by unpaired  $t$  tests. (b) Closure of noninfected wounds ( $n = 5$  per treatment group). The gray arrowhead indicates a statistical difference between mupirocin- and CPVA-treated wounds, and the red arrowhead indicates a statistical difference between CPVA- and clausin-treated wounds, as determined by unpaired  $t$  tests.

more than CPVA-treated wounds and ~24.4% more than mupirocin-treated wounds. Although the difference was not significant, AmyA- and nisin-treated wounds were also smaller than CPVA-treated wounds on day 7.

Histological analysis revealed differences in neutrophil infiltration, neovascularization, and epithelialization among the different groups (Fig. 3). Excised CPVA-treated wounds displayed significant epithelialization on day 7, as evidenced by the relatively thick epithelial layer in the wound area compared to healthy, undamaged skin in the same sample. Widespread neovascularization was visible, with damage to the skin ultrastructure evident at higher magnification. The significant degree of edema and neutrophil infiltration suggests that recovery was in the early inflammatory phase. In contrast, in mupirocin-treated wounds, the degree of vascularization was not as pronounced, with the increase in



**FIG 3** Representative photomicrographs of sections from noninfected wounds excised on day 7, stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The black and white arrowheads indicate undamaged and damaged tissue, respectively. Scale bars, 50  $\mu$ m. The images on the left and right were taken at  $\times 20$  and  $\times 40$  (within the damaged area) magnification, respectively.

epithelial layer thickness in the wound area much less than that observed in CPVA-treated wounds. Mupirocin-treated wounds showed signs of neovascularization. However, the neovascularization response was less pronounced than that observed in CPVA-treated wounds. The decrease in epithelialization and the delayed neovascularization associated with mupirocin treatment suggest that the recovery process may have been delayed, which is supported by the delayed wound closure. All the lantibiotic-treated groups were associated with significant epithelialization and neovascularization. Interestingly, these treatments showed less vascularization than CPVA-treated wounds, while the significant epithelialization in these groups argues against a delayed recovery process. Also, compared to the CPVA-treated group, lantibiotic-treated groups exhibited relatively few infiltrated neutrophils in recovering tissue, suggesting that recovery had already progressed further than in the CPVA-treated controls.

## DISCUSSION

The skin is the largest organ in the body and acts as a barrier protecting the host from the outside environment. The microbiota naturally present on the skin lives in symbiosis with the host (22). Disruption of the skin barrier can lead to dysbiosis, which in

turn leads to microbial invasion by commensal and noncommensal bacteria. This may result in severe SSTIs and can affect wound healing (22, 23). This study investigated the efficacy of the lantibiotics nisin, clausin, and the newly described AmyA in the treatment of *S. aureus*-induced skin infections in mice (24). The results were compared with those obtained using a commercially available mupirocin-containing ointment. All the lantibiotics used in the current study were as effective as mupirocin in reducing the bacterial loads of *S. aureus*-infected wounds. Importantly, the lantibiotic treatments did not negatively influence wound healing, as was observed after mupirocin treatment. Wound healing and the severity of infection can be affected by several factors, including the route of infection and the immunological response. The route of infection plays a role in clinical severity, with intradermal and superficial infections resulting in different inflammatory responses (4). Athymic nude mice do not display the same clinical severity of response to intradermal *S. aureus* infection as wild-type (BALB/c) mice, with clinical severity proposed to be driven by the inflammatory response to bacteria rather than the bacterial burden (25). However, in the current study, clinical severity measured by the rate of wound closure in superficial *S. aureus*-induced skin infections in athymic mice was similar to that reported for superficial *S. aureus* skin infection studies in wild-type (C57BL/6 or BALB/c) mice (4, 14).

Lantibiotics are classified into distinct classes based on their modification machinery and further subdivided into different groups based on amino acid sequence (26, 27). The three lantibiotics used in this study are from different classes. Nisin belongs to the nisin-like lantibiotics and clausin to the epidermin-like lantibiotics. Both are classified as class I lantibiotics. Amyloliqucedin is a two-component class II lantibiotic, with the individual peptides classified as mersacidin-like ( $\alpha$ -peptide) and LtnA2-like ( $\beta$ -peptide) lantibiotics (24). Nisin is the prototypical lantibiotic and is active against several Gram-positive bacterial species, including antibiotic-resistant strains, and is effective in the treatment of microbial infections (13, 14, 28–30). Clausin has not been studied to the same extent, with only a few studies investigating its activity and mode of action (31, 32). Amyloliqucedin is a newly isolated lantibiotic, and its antimicrobial activity has not been reported. It has to be pointed out that, based on amino acid sequence alignments, AmyA is different from other two-component lantibiotics, as well as amylolysin, produced by *B. amyloliquefaciens* (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material) (24, 33, 34). Most lantibiotics target the pyrophosphate moiety of lipid II and subsequently inhibit cell wall biosynthesis (35, 36). Certain lantibiotics form pores in the cell membrane after lipid II binding by forming a membrane-spanning complex (10, 35). Several lantibiotics are active against antibiotic-resistant pathogens, and their efficacy in treating bacterial infections has been reported in several animal models (11–14, 29, 30). However, resistance to lantibiotics has been described in the literature, and the majority of the mechanisms responsible for resistance involve alterations in the charge and permeability of the cell wall or membrane, respectively (37). Resistance mechanisms include alteration of the cell wall and membrane, such as increases in the positive charge of the cell wall or changes in the phospholipid composition of the cell membrane (37–46). Other resistance mechanisms include biofilms, spore formation, and, in some cases, specific antilantibiotic mechanisms (37). The development of resistance to lantibiotics, specifically alteration of lipid II, may be reduced due to the unique binding of lantibiotics to the

pyrophosphate moiety, which is essential for lipid II function and structure (9, 36). Additionally, the dual mode of action of some lantibiotics poses a significant challenge to target organisms and may help limit the onset of resistance. These characteristics make lantibiotics ideal candidates for next-generation antimicrobials.

Little has been published on the *in vivo* treatment of topical infections using lantibiotics. However, lantibiotics are effective in the treatment of *S. aureus* infections when administered via the subcutaneous, intraperitoneal, intranasal, and intravenous routes (11, 12, 29, 30, 47, 48). Nisin incorporated into nanofibers could be used to treat topical *S. aureus* infections (14). Nisin-eluting nanofibers significantly reduced the bacterial load, as shown by bioluminescence and viable-cell counts, similar to the results of the current study. These findings are promising, taking into account the fact that several lantibiotics, including those in the current study, are active against antibiotic-resistant strains (11, 12, 28, 47).

The immediate reduction in bioluminescence when wounds were treated with nisin or mupirocin may be due to their modes of action (Fig. 2). Nisin inhibits cell wall biosynthesis by binding to the cell wall precursor lipid II and disrupting peptidoglycan synthesis. Once bound, nisin forms pores in the cell membrane, followed by leakage of cellular contents (10, 13, 35). Mupirocin blocks protein synthesis through inhibition of isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase and is bactericidal, or bacteriostatic at low concentrations (49–51). The rapid decrease in bioluminescence recorded when wounds were treated with nisin could be due to rapid cell lysis, whereas the decrease in readings recorded with mupirocin treatment could be due to a bactericidal, rather than a bacteriolytic, action. Irrespective of the mode of activity, cells of *S. aureus* Xen 36 would not be able to emit a detectable bioluminescent signal. Clausin and AmyA treatment did not show an initial decrease in bioluminescence, but there are plausible reasons for this. Clausin is an epidermin-like lantibiotic, and they are based on amino acid sequences shorter than those of the nisin-like lantibiotics. Although both epidermin-like and nisin-like lantibiotics can effectively bind to lipid II, pore formation by epidermin-like lantibiotics is affected by membrane thickness (10). This may explain the delayed reduction in bioluminescence from cells treated with clausin. Second, two-component lantibiotics, such as AmyA, require two peptides to act synergistically to induce cellular leakage. The  $\alpha$ -peptide binds to lipid II, followed by binding of the  $\beta$ -peptide to the  $\alpha$ -peptide–lipid II complex. This interaction then results in pore formation (52). Thus, in an *in vivo* situation, it can be expected that the reaction may take place at a reduced rate and could therefore account for AmyA not being able to rapidly reduce bioluminescence. It is also possible that one or both of the AmyA peptides interact with lipids/membranes other than those found in the target organism and, by doing so, delay antimicrobial activity.

From this study, it is evident that lantibiotics, in addition to controlling infection, do not negatively influence wound healing compared to CPVA and mupirocin treatments, with similar effects observed for wound closure in both infected and noninfected wounds. In contrast, despite the effectiveness of mupirocin in reducing the bacterial burden, it delayed wound closure compared to all the other treatments. The observation in the mupirocin-treated wounds of less epithelialization, as well as the delayed neovascularization, suggests that the recovery process may have been delayed (53). Similar cases of delayed wound closure have been



reported for mupirocin formulations (54). These facts add to the concern raised by an actual delayed wound closure rate associated with mupirocin, which highlights the necessity to find more suitable alternatives, such as the ones reported in the current study. The composition of the drug delivery vehicle can also influence antimicrobial effectiveness and wound healing (4, 55). Interestingly, there were no significant differences in wound closure between infected and noninfected wounds treated with CPVA. Kim and coworkers (56) reported similar results while studying the dynamics of neutrophil infiltration during full-thickness wound healing in mice. In their study, mice were intraperitoneally injected with granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF) (wounds not infected) or saline (wounds not infected) or, alternatively, not injected (wounds infected with *S. aureus*). The authors found that, despite an increase in neutrophil recruitment resulting from infection with *S. aureus* or treatment with GM-CSF, wound closure rates in all groups were similar to that of the saline-injected control. In our study, the lantibiotics did not negatively influence wound closure, with all wounds being smaller than CPVA- and mupirocin-treated wounds (Fig. 2). These results, along with those from the histological analysis, may indicate an alternative or additional mechanism by which lantibiotics facilitate regeneration of damaged tissue. Similar results were obtained when wounds were treated with nisin-eluting nanofibers, including earlier signs of epithelialization and lack of neutrophil infiltration (14), suggesting faster resolution of inflammation and more efficient tissue repair. Lantibiotics are able to induce chemokines involved in wound healing. Interleukin 8, growth-related oncogene  $\alpha$ , and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 are induced by nisin and gallidermin, with nisin treatment resulting in stronger induction of these chemokines (20). Nisin and gallidermin are classified into different groups, namely, nisin-like and epidermin-like lantibiotics, respectively. The lantibiotics in the current study were also from different groups, and although not statistically significant, differences in the effects of these lantibiotics were evident. This indicates that structural differences in lantibiotics possibly influence their modulation of the immune system.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated the effectiveness of lantibiotics in the treatment of *S. aureus*-induced skin infections, as well as their effects on the closure of infected and noninfected wounds. Of particular interest is the fact that the current study is the first to investigate and report on the antimicrobial properties of the newly identified two-component lantibiotic amyloliquicidin. From the data reported here, it is evident that the lantibiotics assessed are as effective in reducing the bacterial load on wounds as mupirocin treatment, which is one of the recommended treatments for *S. aureus*-induced skin infections. Furthermore, treatment with lantibiotics is equivalent to or better than treatment with mupirocin, especially with respect to wound closure rates. The specific role(s) of these promising lantibiotics in wound healing and how their structural properties might influence this interaction are areas that require further investigation. However, the efficacy in terms of both antimicrobial and wound-healing properties of the lantibiotics used in this study, compared to mupirocin, effectively illustrates the potential of lantibiotics in the treatment of skin infections.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the National Research Foundation (NRF) of South Africa for financial support and funding of this research.

We thank Noël Markgraaf and Judy Farao for assistance with animals and Ashwin Isaacs for technical assistance with sample preparation and microtome sectioning.

## FUNDING INFORMATION

This work, including the efforts of Leon Dicks, was funded by National Research Foundation (NRF).

## REFERENCES

- Moet GJ, Jones RN, Biedenbach DJ, Stilwell MG, Fritsche TR. 2007. Contemporary causes of skin and soft tissue infections in North America, Latin America and Europe: report from the SENTRY Antimicrobial Surveillance Program 1998–2004. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis* 57:7–13. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.diagmicrobio.2006.05.009>.
- Dryden MS. 2010. Complicated skin and soft tissue infection. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 65(Suppl 3):iii35–iii44. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkq302>.
- Diehr S, Hamp A, Jamieson B, Jamieson B, Mendoza M. 2007. Clinical inquiries. Do topical antibiotics improve wound healing? *J Fam Pract* 56:140–144.
- Cho JS, Zussman J, Donegan NP, Ramos RI, Garcia NC, Uslan DZ, Iwakura Y, Simon SI, Cheung AL, Modlin RL, Kim J, Miller LS. 2011. Noninvasive *in vivo* imaging to evaluate immune responses and antimicrobial therapy against *Staphylococcus aureus* and USA300 MRSA skin infections. *J Invest Dermatol* 131:907–915. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/jid.2010.417>.
- Pillai SK, Sakoulas G, Wennersten C, Eliopoulos GM, Moellering RC, Ferraro MJ, Gold HS. 2002. Linezolid resistance in *Staphylococcus aureus*: characterization and stability of resistant phenotype. *J Infect Dis* 186:1603–1607. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1086/345368>.
- Howden BP, Johnson PDR, Ward PB, Stinear TP, Davies JK. 2006. Isolates with low-level vancomycin resistance associated with persistent methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 50:3039–3047. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00422-06>.
- Hentschke M, Saager B, Horstkotte MA, Scherpe S, Wolters M, Kabisch H, Grosse R, Heisig P, Aepfelbacher M, Rohde H. 2008. Emergence of linezolid resistance in a methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strain. *Infection* 36:85–87. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s15010-007-7220-7>.
- Zhu W, Clark NC, McDougal LK, Hageman J, McDonald LC, Patel JB. 2008. Vancomycin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates associated with Inc18-like vanA plasmids in Michigan. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 52:452–457. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00908-07>.
- de Kruijff B, van Dam V, Breukink E. 2008. Lipid II: a central component in bacterial cell wall synthesis and a target for antibiotics. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids* 79:117–121. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.plefa.2008.09.020>.
- Bonelli RR, Schneider T, Sahl HG, Wiedemann I. 2006. Insights into *in vivo* activities of lantibiotics from gallidermin and epidermin mode-of-action studies. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 50:1449–1457. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.50.4.1449-1457.2006>.
- Chatterjee S, Chatterjee DK, Jani RH, Blumbach J, Ganguli BN, Klesel N, Limbert M, Seibert G. 1992. Mersacidin, a new antibiotic from *Bacillus*. *In vitro* and *in vivo* antibacterial activity. *J Antibiot* 45:839–845.
- Jabés D, Brunati C, Candiani G, Riva S, Romanó G, Donadio S. 2011. Efficacy of the new lantibiotic NAI-107 in experimental infections induced by multidrug-resistant gram-positive pathogens. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 55:1671–1676. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01288-10>.
- Van Staden AD, Brand AM, Dicks LMT. 2012. Nisin F-loaded brushite bone cement prevented the growth of *Staphylococcus aureus* *in vivo*. *J Appl Microbiol* 112:831–840. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.2012.05241.x>.
- Heunis TDJ, Smith C, Dicks LMT. 2013. Evaluation of a nisin-eluting nanofiber scaffold to treat *Staphylococcus aureus*-induced skin infections in mice. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 57:3928–3935. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.00622-13>.
- Gillitzer R, Goebeler M. 2001. Chemokines in cutaneous wound healing. *J Leukoc Biol* 69:513–521.
- Gurtner GC, Werner S, Barrandon Y, Longaker MT. 2008. Wound repair and regeneration. *Nature* 453:314–321. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nature07039>.

17. Guo S, Dipietro LA. 2010. Factors affecting wound healing. *J Dent Res* 89:219–229. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0022034509359125>.
18. Steinstraesser L, Kraneburg UM, Hirsch T, Kesting M, Steinau HU, Jacobsen F, Al-Benna S. 2009. Host defense peptides as effector molecules of the innate immune response: a sledgehammer for drug resistance? *Int J Mol Sci* 10:3951–3970. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/ijms10093951>.
19. Begde D, Bundale S, Mashitha P, Rudra J, Nashikkar N, Upadhyay A. 2011. Immunomodulatory efficacy of nisin—a bacterial lantibiotic peptide. *J Pept Sci* 17:438–444. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/psc.1341>.
20. Kindrachuk J, Jansen H, Elliott M, Nijnik A, Magrangeas-Janot L, Pasupuleti M, Thorson L, Ma S, Easton DM, Bains M, Finlay B, Breukink EJ, Sahl HG, Hancock RE. 2013. Manipulation of innate immunity by a bacterial secreted peptide: lantibiotic nisin Z is selectively immunomodulatory. *Innate Immun* 19:315–327. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1753425912461456>.
21. Stevens KA, Sheldon BW, Klapes NA, Klaenhammer TR. 1991. Nisin treatment for inactivation of *Salmonella* species and other gram-negative bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 57:3613–3615.
22. Scharschmidt TC, Fischbach MA. 2013. What lives on our skin: ecology, genomics and therapeutic opportunities of the skin microbiome. *Drug Discov Today Dis Mech* 10:e83–e89. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ddmec.2012.12.003>.
23. Wanke I, Skabytska Y, Kraft B, Peschel A, Biedermann T, Schitteck B. 2013. *Staphylococcus aureus* skin colonization is promoted by barrier disruption and leads to local inflammation. *Exp Dermatol* 22:153–155. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/exd.12083>.
24. Van Staden AD. 2015. *In vitro* and *in vivo* characterization of amyloliquefascidin, a novel two-component lantibiotic produced by *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*. Ph.D. thesis. Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch, South Africa.
25. Montgomery CP, Daniels MD, Zhao F, Spellberg B, Chong AS, Daum RS. 2013. Local inflammation exacerbates the severity of *Staphylococcus aureus* skin infection. *PLoS One* 8:e69508. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0069508>.
26. Cotter P, Hill C, Ross R. 2005. Bacterial lantibiotics: strategies to improve therapeutic potential. *Curr Protein Pept Sci* 6:61–75. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2174/1389203053027584>.
27. Arnison PG, Bibb MJ, Bierbaum G, Bowers AA, Bugni TS, Bulaj G, Camarero JA, Campopiano DJ, Challis GL, Clardy J, Cotter PD, Craik DJ, Dawson MA, Dittmann E, Donadio S, Dorrestein PC, Entian K, Fischbach MA, Garavelli JS, Göransson U, Gruber CW, Haft DH, Hemscheidt TK, Hertweck C, Hill C, Horswill AR, Jaspars M, Kelly WL, Klinman JP, Kuipers OP, Link AJ, Liu W, Marahiel MA, Mitchell DA, Moll GN, Moore BS, Müller R, Nair SK, Nes IF, Norris GE, Olivera BM, Onaka H, Patchett ML, Piel J, Reaney MJT, Rebuffat S, Ross RP, Sahl H, Schmidt EW, Selsted ME, Severinov K, Shen B, Sivonen K, Smith L, Stein T, Süßmuth RD, Tagg JR, Tang G, Truman AW, Vederas JC, Walsh CT, Walton JD, Wenzel SC, Willey JM, van der Donk WA. 2013. Ribosomally synthesized and post-translationally modified peptide natural products: overview and recommendations for a universal nomenclature. *Nat Prod Rep* 30:108–160. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/C2NP20085F>.
28. Piper C, Hill C, Cotter PD, Ross RP. 2011. Bioengineering of a Nisin A-producing *Lactococcus lactis* to create isogenic strains producing the natural variants Nisin F, Q and Z. *Microb Biotechnol* 4:375–382. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-7915.2010.00207.x>.
29. Goldstein BP, Wei J, Greenberg K, Novick R. 1998. Activity of nisin against *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *in vitro*, and in a mouse infection model. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 42:277–278. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/42.2.277>.
30. Campion A, Casey PG, Field D, Cotter PD, Hill C, Ross RP. 2013. *In vivo* activity of nisin A and nisin V against *Listeria monocytogenes* in mice. *BMC Microbiol* 13:23. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2180-13-23>.
31. Urdaci MC, Bressollier P, Pinchuk I. 2004. *Bacillus clausii* probiotic strains: antimicrobial and immunomodulatory activities. *J Clin Gastroenterol* 38:S86–S90. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/01.mcg.0000128925.06662.69>.
32. Bouhss A, Al-Dabbagh B, Vincent M, Odaert B, Aumont-Nicaise M, Bressollier P, Desmadril M, Mengin-Lecreux D, Urdaci MC, Gallay J. 2009. Specific interactions of clausin, a new lantibiotic, with lipid precursors of the bacterial cell wall. *Biophys J* 97:1390–1397. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bpj.2009.06.029>.
33. Arguelles Arias A, Ongena M, Devreese B, Terrak M, Joris B, Fickers P. 2013. Characterization of amylolysin, a novel lantibiotic from *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* GA1. *PLoS One* 8:e83037. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0083037>.
34. Dias L, Caetano T, Pinheiro M, Mendo S. 2015. The lanthipeptides of *Bacillus methylotrophicus* and their association with genomic islands. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 38:525–533. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.syapm.2015.10.002>.
35. Wiedemann I, Breukink E, Van Kraaij C, Kuipers OP, Bierbaum G, De Kruijff B, Sahl HG. 2001. Specific binding of nisin to the peptidoglycan precursor lipid II combines pore formation and inhibition of cell wall biosynthesis for potent antibiotic activity. *J Biol Chem* 276:1772–1779. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M006770200>.
36. Hsu ST, Breukink E, Tischenko E, Lutters MAG, de Kruijff B, Kaptein R, Bonvin AMJJ, van Nuland NAJ. 2004. The nisin-lipid II complex reveals a pyrophosphate cage that provides a blueprint for novel antibiotics. *Nat Struct Mol Biol* 11:963–967. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nsmb830>.
37. Draper LA, Cotter PD, Hill C, Ross RP. 2015. Lantibiotic resistance. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev* 79:171–191. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/MMBR.00051-14>.
38. Kingston AW, Liao X, Helmann JD. 2013. Contributions of the  $\sigma^W$ ,  $\sigma^M$  and  $\sigma^X$  regulons to the lantibiotic resistome of *Bacillus subtilis*. *Mol Microbiol* 90:502–518. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12380>.
39. McBride SM, Sonenshein AL. 2011. The *dlt* operon confers resistance to cationic antimicrobial peptides in *Clostridium difficile*. *Microbiology* 157: 1457–1465. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1099/mic.0.045997-0>.
40. Kovacs M, Halfmann A, Fedtke I, Heintz M, Peschel A, Vollmer W, Hakenbeck R, Bruckner R. 2006. A functional *dlt* operon, encoding proteins required for incorporation of D-alanine in teichoic acids in gram-positive bacteria, confers resistance to cationic antimicrobial peptides in *Streptococcus pneumoniae*. *J Bacteriol* 188:5797–5805. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.00336-06>.
41. Kristian SA, Datta V, Weidenmaier C, Kansal R, Fedtke I, Peschel A, Gallo RL, Nizet V. 2005. D-Alanylation of teichoic acids promotes group A streptococcus antimicrobial peptide resistance, neutrophil survival, and epithelial cell invasion. *J Bacteriol* 187:6719–6725. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/JB.187.19.6719-6725.2005>.
42. Abachin E, Poyart C, Pellegrini E, Milohanic E, Fiedler F, Berche P, Trieu-Cuot P. 2002. Formation of D-alanyl-lipoteichoic acid is required for adhesion and virulence of *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Mol Microbiol* 43: 1–14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2958.2002.02723.x>.
43. Peschel A, Otto M, Jack RW, Kalbacher H, Jung G, Gotz F. 1999. Inactivation of the *dlt* operon in *Staphylococcus aureus* confers sensitivity to defensins, protegrins, and other antimicrobial peptides. *J Biol Chem* 274:8405–8410. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1074/jbc.274.13.8405>.
44. Saar-Dover R, Bitler A, Nezer R, Shmuel-Galia L, Firon A, Shimoni E, Trieu-Cuot P, Shai Y. 2012. D-Alanylation of lipoteichoic acids confers resistance to cationic peptides in group B streptococcus by increasing the cell wall density. *PLoS Pathog* 8:e1002891. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1002891>.
45. Crandall AD, Montville TJ. 1998. Nisin resistance in *Listeria monocytogenes* ATCC 700302 is a complex phenotype. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 64:231–237.
46. Mazzotta AS, Montville TJ. 1997. Nisin induces changes in membrane fatty acid composition of *Listeria monocytogenes* nisin-resistant strains at 10°C and 30°C. *J Appl Microbiol* 82:32–38. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2672.1997.tb03294.x>.
47. Kruszewska D, Sahl HG, Bierbaum G, Pag U, Hynes SO, Ljungh A. 2004. Mersacidin eradicates methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* MRSA in a mouse rhinitis model. *J Antimicrob Chemother* 54:648–653. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/jac/dkh387>.
48. De Kwaadsteniet M, Doeschate KT, Dicks LMT. 2009. Nisin F in the treatment of respiratory tract infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus*. *Lett Appl Microbiol* 48:65–70. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1472-765X.2008.02488.x>.
49. Hughes J, Mellows G. 1978. Inhibition of isoleucyl-transfer ribonucleic acid synthetase in *Escherichia coli* by pseudomonic acid. *Biochem J* 176: 305–318. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1042/bj1760305>.
50. Hughes J, Mellows G. 1980. Interaction of pseudomonic acid A with *Escherichia coli* B isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase. *Biochem J* 191:209–219. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1042/bj1910209>.
51. Sutherland R, Boon RJ, Griffin KE, Masters PJ, Slocombe B, White AR. 1985. Antibacterial activity of mupirocin (pseudomonic acid), a new antibiotic for topical use. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 27:495–498. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.27.4.495>.

52. Oman TJ, van der Donk WA. 2009. Insights into the mode of action of the two-peptide lantibiotic haloduracin. *ACS Chem Biol* 4:865–874. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/cb900194x>.
53. Nayak BS, Ramdath DD, Marshall JR, Isitor GN, Eversley M, Xue S, Shi J. 2010. Wound-healing activity of the skin of the common grape (*Vitis vinifera*) variant, Cabernet Sauvignon. *Phyther Res* 24:1151–1157.
54. Heggers JP, Kucukcelebi A, Stabenau CJ, Ko F, Broemeling LD, Robson MC, Winters WD. 1995. Wound healing effects of aloe gel and other topical antibacterial agents on rat skin. *Phyther Res* 9:455–457. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/ptr.2650090615>.
55. Guo Y, Ramos RI, Cho JS, Donegan NP, Cheung AL, Miller LS. 2013. *In vivo* bioluminescence imaging to evaluate systemic and topical antibiotics against community-acquired methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus*-infected skin wounds in mice. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 57:855–863. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01003-12>.
56. Kim M-H, Liu W, Borjesson DL, Curry F-RE, Miller LS, Cheung AL, Liu F-T, Isseroff RR, Simon SI. 2008. Dynamics of neutrophil infiltration during cutaneous wound healing and infection using fluorescence imaging. *J Invest Dermatol* 128:1812–1820. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/sj.jid.5701223>.